

Springtime high surface ozone events over the western United

States: Quantifying the role of stratospheric intrusions

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Key Points:

- (1) Stratospheric intrusions can episodically contribute 50-60% to surface ozone
- (2) Stratospheric impacts may confound efforts to attain ozone air quality standards
- (3) Global high-res model, satellite and *in situ* observations yield process insights

Abstract

The published literature debates the extent to which naturally occurring stratospheric ozone intrusions reach the surface and compromise attainment of the U.S. National Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) for ground-level ozone (currently 75 ppbv). Analysis of ozonesondes, lidar, and surface measurements over the western U.S. from April to June 2010 show that a global high-resolution ($\sim 50 \times 50$ km²) chemistry-

climate model (GFDL AM3) captures the observed layered features and sharp ozone gradients of deep stratospheric intrusions, representing a major improvement over previous chemical transport models. Thirteen intrusions enhanced daily maximum 8-hour average (MDA8) ozone to 60-85 ppbv at surface sites. With a stratospheric ozone tracer defined relative to a dynamically-varying tropopause, we find that transport of stratospheric ozone to the surface can contribute 30-55 ppbv, composing 50-60% of the total, on days when observed MDA8 ozone exceeds the NAAQS. Several of such events occurred in suburban areas of California and Colorado. These stratospheric intrusions elevated background ozone concentrations (estimated by turning off North American anthropogenic emissions in the model) to MDA8 values of 60-75 ppbv. At high-elevation western U.S. sites, the 25th-75th percentile of the stratospheric contribution is 15-25 ppbv when observed MDA8 ozone is 60-70 ppbv, and increases to ~17-40 ppbv for the 70-85 ppbv range. These estimates, up to 2-3 times greater than previously reported, indicate a major role for stratospheric intrusions in driving springtime high-O₃ events, which poses a challenge for attaining the ozone NAAQS, particularly if a threshold in the 60-70 ppbv range were to be adopted.

1. Introduction

Understanding global sources of local air pollution is crucial for setting air quality standards and for designing appropriate control policies [*National Research Council, 2009; McDonald-Buller et al., 2011*]. In contrast to the "good" ozone (O₃) layer in the stratosphere that shields life on Earth from the Sun's harmful ultraviolet radiation, exposure to high concentrations of ground-level (i.e. "bad") O₃ aggravates respiratory illness [*World Health Organization, 2005*]. Stratosphere-to-troposphere transport (STT) is a common occurrence at mid- and high latitudes, but its influence on tropospheric O₃ levels remains a long-standing question despite decades of

research [Levy et al., 1985; Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1997; Monks, 2000; Stohl et al., 2003; Stevenson et al., 2006; Wild et al., 2007; Hsu and Prather, 2009]. In particular, prior publications debate the extent to which stratospheric O₃ intrusions reach the surface and compromise attainment of the air quality standard for ground-level O₃ [Lefohn et al., 2001, 2011; Fiore et al., 2003; Langford et al., 2009]. This poor understanding reflects our inability to directly measure the stratospheric contribution to tropospheric O₃, as well as limited model capability to represent the dynamic processes of STT and to account accurately for stratospheric O₃ in the troposphere [e.g. Roelofs et al., 2003; Hudman et al., 2004; Hsu et al., 2005; Hess and Lamarque, 2007; Zhang et al., 2011]. Here we revisit the role of stratospheric influence on springtime high surface O₃ episodes over the western United States by applying a newly developed global model with fully coupled stratosphere-troposphere chemistry at ~50x50 km² resolution (GFDL AM3) [Lin et al., 2012], which we analyze alongside a suite of satellite and *in situ* measurements.

The primary mechanism for the transport of stratospheric O₃ to the mid- and lower troposphere is descent through the dry airstream of mid-latitude cyclones [Danielsen 1968; Johnson and Viezee, 1981; Cooper et al. 2001; Stohl et al. 2003]. Western North America, located at the end of the North Pacific wave train of mid-latitude cyclones, has been identified as a preferred region for deep STT reaching below the 700 hPa level [Sprenger and Wernli, 2003; James et al., 2003]. The semi-permanent surface anticyclone in the eastern North Pacific Ocean provides a baroclinic zone that facilitates descent of stratospheric O₃ into the lower troposphere following strong frontal passages [Bourqui and Trepanier 2010]. The impacts of STT on tropospheric O₃ are greatest at extratropical latitudes in winter and spring, when the lifetime of O₃ is much longer compared to the tropics and to summer, when photochemical and depositional O₃ losses maximize [e.g. Holton et al., 1995].

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92 Signatures of stratospheric intrusions in the free troposphere have been observed in
93 various contexts. For example, they appear as filamentary dry features in satellite
94 water vapor imagery [e.g. *Appenzeller and Davies, 1992; Wimmers et al., 2003;*
95 *Felker et al. 2011*] and as layered structures in O₃ profiles [e.g. *Roelofs et al., 2003;*
96 *Thompson et al., 2007*]. They are evident in ozone lidar measurements [e.g. *Browell*
97 *et al., 1987; Langford et al., 1996; Stohl and Trickl, 1999*] and have long been
98 detected by *in situ* aircraft measurements [*Danielsen 1968; Shapiro 1980; Cooper et*
99 *al., 2004, 2005*].

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101 Despite observational evidence for the presence of stratospheric intrusions in the
102 free troposphere, accurately quantifying the stratospheric contribution to
103 tropospheric O₃ in space and time is complicated by the interplay of processes
104 influencing O₃ from STT (e.g. circulation and abundances of O₃ in the lower
105 stratosphere; an ever shifting, folding tropopause; filamentary intrusions; evolution in
106 transit due to chemical and depositional losses, and dilution). Many global and
107 regional tropospheric chemical transport models (CTMs) do not reproduce well the
108 layered features of stratospheric intrusions measured by ozonesondes and lidar [e.g.
109 *Roelofs et al., 2003; Hudman et al., 2004; Liang et al., 2007; Tarasick et al., 2007*].
110 Diagnosing the impacts of STT in surface air is further complicated by the coupling
111 between the free troposphere and the boundary layer and by the dominance of local
112 emissions in contributing to high-O₃ pollution in urban areas.

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114 The current guidelines from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) state
115 that air quality monitoring data influenced by an extreme stratospheric O₃ intrusion
116 may be excluded from regulatory determinations related to violations of the National
117 Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) for ground-level O₃, since these naturally

occurring “exceptional events” are not reasonably controllable by state agencies [U.S. EPA, 2007]. The U.S. EPA Region 8 (Figure 1) is particularly susceptible to these events. The identification of such events is challenging, however, given the episodic, transient and localized nature of deep STT and the limited spatial and temporal extent of measurements available to diagnose their presence. The U.S. EPA has relied heavily on the GEOS-Chem global CTM for estimating background O₃ for policy assessments [e.g. Fiore *et al.*, 2002, 2003; U.S. EPA 2006; Zhang *et al.*, 2011], however, studies have shown that GEOS-Chem underestimates the contribution from deep STT events to lower tropospheric O₃ [Hudman *et al.*, 2004] and is unable to capture observed O₃ above 70 ppbv at remote mountain sites in spring [Emery *et al.*, 2011; Zhang *et al.*, 2011], which may reflect stratospheric influence.

For the first time, we apply a global high-resolution (~50x50 km²) chemistry-climate model [Lin *et al.*, 2012], with a stratospheric O₃ tracer defined relative to a dynamically varying tropopause tracer recently proposed by Prather *et al.* [2011], to quantify stratospheric impacts on western U.S. surface O₃ in space and time. Our focus on the western U.S. leverages the availability of near-daily ozonesonde and lidar measurements during the 2010 NOAA CalNex field campaign in California [Cooper *et al.*, 2011; Langford *et al.*, 2012], which allows for an unprecedented opportunity to evaluate GFDL AM3 on a process level, in particular, its representation of the dynamic processes conducive to surface impacts from stratospheric intrusions.

Section 2 briefly describes the measurements, model simulations, and stratospheric O₃ tagging methodology. Section 3 presents several case studies of the strongest and deepest STT events in April-June 2010, using both the model and observations to assess stratospheric influence on the NAAQS exceedances. Section 4

summarizes the ability of the GFDL AM3 model to represent the relevant processes. We then synthesize mean and maximum stratospheric contributions to O₃ levels at more than 1200 surface monitoring sites and discuss associated policy implications (Section 5).

2. Measurements and Model

2.1 Upper Air and Surface Measurements

We use a combination of water vapor images from the NOAA GOES-West geostationary satellite, total column O₃ retrieved from the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) onboard the NASA Aqua satellite [Susskind *et al.*, 2003], and NCEP Global Forecasting System Final Analysis (FNL) to provide a large-scale view of observed synoptic conditions favorable for stratospheric intrusions. Further, we gain insights into the deep descent of stratospheric O₃ from near-daily balloon-borne ozonesondes launched at six sites in California (Figure 1) between May 10 and June 19, 2010 [Cooper *et al.*, 2011]. Three of the sonde launch sites were located on the California coast from north to south: Trinidad Head (TH), Point Reyes (RY), and Point Sur (PS). One site, Shasta (SH), was located in the Northern Sacramento Valley. There were also two sites in Southern California: San Nicholas Island (SN), ~140 km southwest of Los Angeles, and Joshua Tree (JT), located in the Mojave Desert on the northwest edge of Joshua Tree National Park. For comparison with ozonesonde measurements, we sample AM3 at the locations and times of sonde launches as described by Lin *et al.* [2012]. We also use observed relative humidity (RH) profiles from the radiosondes to identify the dry layers as a qualitative proxy for air of stratospheric origin (note we do not use the RH profiles at SN, which are found to be unreliable).

The O₃ distribution in the lower troposphere was also measured by a downward

looking lidar on the NOAA Twin Otter aircraft during two intrusions (May 23 and 29) over Southern California [Alvarez *et al.*, 2011; Langford *et al.*, 2012]. We average the lidar measurements over a $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$ grid for direct comparison to the AM3 results sampled along the flight track.

Finally, we investigate ground-based measurements of O_3 from the U.S. EPA's Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNet), with sites mostly located in rural areas, and from the Air Quality System (AQS), with sites predominantly clustered in urban areas, for changes of surface O_3 levels following the appearance of enhanced O_3 in the free troposphere observed by sondes or lidar. Fifteen high-elevation (>1.4 km above mean sea level, a.s.l.) CASTNet and AQS sites (green symbols in Figure 1) are selected to represent general patterns of stratospheric influence in the mountainous regions. We focus our analysis on daily maximum 8-hour average O_3 (hereafter MDA8 O_3), which usually includes the afternoon hours when the boundary layer is sufficiently deep to mix O_3 aloft down to the surface.

2.2 GFDL AM3 Model Simulations

AM3 is the atmospheric component of the GFDL global coupled atmosphere-ocean-land-sea ice model (CM3) [Donner *et al.*, 2011]. We have recently applied a new version of AM3 at C180 cubed-sphere grid horizontal resolution (~ 42 - 63 km) to study transport of Asian O_3 pollution to the western U.S. surface [Lin *et al.*, 2012]. Model simulations at the C48 resolution (163 - 231 km) starting in January 2009 were used to initialize the C180 (~ 43 - 62 km) simulations spanning January-June 2010. The C180 model outputs are then regridded to $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$ latitude-longitude grid for analysis. To enable direct comparisons with CalNex observations, horizontal winds in our AM3 simulations are nudged to those from the NCEP GFS (approximately $1.4^\circ \times 1.4^\circ$, 64 sigma levels, archived 3 hourly), utilizing a weaker nudging strength with decreasing pressure as described by Lin *et al.* [2012] (i.e., relaxing with a time

scale of 6 hours in the surface level and ~60 hours at 100 hPa to minimize the impacts of noise near the tropopause introduced via nudging).

Major AM3 model updates since *Lin et al* [2012] include: (1) implementing the Fast-JX photolysis scheme [*Wild et al, 2000*] coupled to cloud and aerosol properties in the AM3 radiation scheme [*J. Liu, personal communication, 2011*], and (2) using global anthropogenic emissions from RCP8.5 for 2010 [*Moss et al., 2010*] to better represent recent emission changes in Asia, North America, and Europe. We find that NO_x emissions in RCP8.5 for 2010 are approximately 35% lower over heavily populated regions than that in the U.S. National Emission Inventory (NEI) for 2005, consistent with changes in the 2005–2010 satellite measurements of NO₂ columns from the SCIAMACHY sensor (data available on www.tenison.nl).

Accurate representation of O₃ levels in a stratospheric intrusion depends strongly on O₃ simulated in the lower stratosphere [*Roelofs et al., 2003; Terao et al., 2008*]. AM3 includes fully coupled stratosphere-troposphere-aerosol chemistry within a general circulation model [*Donner et al., 2011*], with 48 vertical levels, ranging in thickness from 70 m near the Earth's surface to 1-1.5 km near the tropopause and 2-3 km in much of the stratosphere. This full-chemistry feature, described more fully in Naik et al., in prep, distinguishes the GFDL AM3 model from most current generation global tropospheric CTMs, which represent stratospheric O₃ distributions with simplified stratospheric chemistry (SYNOZ or LINOZ) or by relaxing to an observed climatology [*McLinden et al., 2000; Horowitz et al., 2003; Fiore et al., 2003; Emmons et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011*], and enables a process-oriented analysis of stratospheric interactions with tropospheric chemistry. Observed sea surface temperatures and sea ice, well mixed greenhouse gas and halogen concentrations, and optical properties of stratospheric aerosols are specified in AM3 as time-varying

fields. The major stratospheric O₃ destruction cycles (O_x, HO_x, NO_x, ClO_x, and BrO_x) are included explicitly in the model, as well as heterogeneous reactions on ice and nitric acid trihydrate (NAT) in polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) [Austin and Wilson, 2006; 2010].

In addition to the standard simulation, we conducted a sensitivity simulation with North American (NA) anthropogenic emissions switched off in the model to estimate background O₃ levels, defined by U.S. EPA as O₃ concentrations that would exist in the absence of anthropogenic emissions from U.S., Canada, and Mexico (previously referred as policy relevant background O₃ [McDonald-Buller *et al.*, 2011]; hereafter NA background). The specific sources of the NA background include STT, intercontinental transport (e.g. Asian pollution), and ozone produced by wildfire effluents, biogenic emissions, methane, and lightning NO_x. In Section 5, we compare our estimates of the stratospheric component (Section 2.3) of NA background with the Asian pollution estimates as described by Lin *et al.* [2012].

2.3 Quantifying Stratospheric Contributions to Troposphere Ozone

We implement the e90 tracer proposed by Prather *et al* [2011] to more accurately diagnose the three-dimensional tropopause location as required to tag O₃ originating from the stratosphere (O₃S). It should be noted that the AM3 simulation of ozone from STT is entirely driven by winds, with no dependency on the definition of tropopause. The e90 tropopause tracer is applied only for the O₃S tagging as described below.

With a globally uniform surface source and 90-day e-folding lifetime, the e90-tropopause tracer differentiates tropospheric air by time scales, linking it to the mixing of the troposphere and its exchange with the surface. The e90 tracer approach allows for clear characterization of stratospheric vs. tropospheric air in

complex situations where the traditional tropopause definitions (e.g. thermal lapse rate, potential vorticity, or O₃) are problematic. The tropopause value of e90 is derived as 85 ppbv in the GFDL AM3 model from the constraint that the troposphere annually comprises about 80% of the atmosphere [Prather et al, 2001; 2011]. Monthly mean e90-tropopause pressures and O₃ concentrations in AM3 reproduce the salient features of a climatology derived from ozonesondes (not shown). The global net stratosphere-to-troposphere flux of O₃, diagnosed as the net change due to advection in each grid cell up to the e90 tropopause archived from the model every 3 hours, is ~535 Tg/yr in the GFDL AM3 model, within the observation-based range of 400-600 Tg/yr [e.g. McLinden et al., 2000; Hsu et al., 2005].

We set the O₃S tracer equal to simulated O₃ in stratospheric air (e90 < 85 ppbv) and subject it to chemical loss in tropospheric air (e90 ≥ 85 ppbv) and depositional loss to the surface in the same manner as O₃ of tropospheric origin. Aged tropospheric air occasionally includes e90 < 90 ppbv below 600 hPa in the tropics [Prather et al., 2011 and M. Prather, personal communication, 2011], so we restrict tagging O₃S to above 600 hPa. Ozone in the stratosphere has been spun up for decades. The O₃S and e90 tracers have been spun up for three years in a previous simulation. Transport of O₃, O₃S, and e90 are fully driven by meteorology, with no dependency on the definition of tropopause.

This stratospheric O₃ tagging methodology has a number of mechanistic and conceptual advantages over the methods used in prior publications. First, the e90 methodology is less prone to errors associated with defining the tropopause in complex synoptic conditions (e.g. mid-latitude frontal zones), as compared to using a tropopause fixed at the 100 hPa level [Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1997; Lelieveld and Dentener, 2000] or defined by the 2 K km⁻¹ thermal lapse rate [e.g. Emmons et al.,

2003; Lamarque and Hess, 2004; Lin et al., 2012]. In the latter methods, any O₃ above the “tropopause” is instantly labeled as “stratospheric” regardless of its true origin. We find that the lapse-rate based tagging method overestimates O₃S in surface air by 5-8 ppbv on seasonal average, and occasionally by ~30 ppbv during individual events when e90 indicates an influence of tropospheric background rather than a stratospheric intrusion (not shown). Second, the O₃S-e90 tagging method also avoids potential noise that may bias the NO_x tagging technique in which the stratospheric contribution is determined as the residual between two much larger numbers [Hess and Lamarque, 2007; Pfister et al., 2008].

Third, the dynamical coupling of stratospheric chemistry and transport with the troposphere in AM3, as opposed to imposing a climatological STT O₃ flux in previous models [e.g. Fiore et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2011], allows AM3 O₃S to better capture the dynamic variability of mid- and upper tropospheric O₃ due to stratospheric influence. Finally, the new O₃S tracer, implemented in a full-chemistry model like GFDL AM3, accounts for the impacts due to long-range transport and chemical losses of transported stratospheric O₃ in tropospheric air as compared to a tracer in a passive trajectory model like FLEXPART [e.g. Cooper et al., 2005; Langford et al., 2012] (Figure S5).

3. Contribution of Deep Stratospheric Intrusions to Surface Ozone Episodes

3.1 April-June 2010: An Active Period for Deep Intrusions

Spring 2010 was unusually cool along the U.S. West Coast with strong surface cold fronts and amplified upper level troughs. We find an ~30% positive anomaly in total O₃ columns retrieved from NASA AIRS [Susskind et al., 2003] over the northwest U.S. in May 2010 relative to a climatological mean, consistent with the 39% above average O₃ enhancements at 7-10 km above California noted by Cooper et al [2011]. According to the NOAA Climate Prediction Center (<http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov>),

the 2009-2010 winter was influenced by strong El Niño conditions. Several studies have suggested enhanced STT in winter and spring over western North America following El Niño conditions [Langford et al, 1998; Koumoutsaris et al., 2008].

Indeed, thirteen stratospheric O₃ intrusions occurred in April-June 2010 (Table 1). Six events were measured by *in situ* and remote sensing instruments deployed during the CalNex field campaign from May 9-June 20. Lin et al. [2012] identified two cases of these intrusions (May 17-20 and June 16-19) that were mixed with Asian O₃ pollution. Langford et al [2012] used principal component analysis (PCA) of O₃ measurements together with meteorological parameters to infer that these intrusions can account for ~13% of surface O₃ variability in the Los Angeles area during CalNex. Here we further explore five of the strongest intrusions (June 7-8, June 9-14, May 27-29, May 22-24, and April 12-14) in Sections 3.2-3.4 and quantify their impacts on western U.S. surface O₃. Section 3.5 summarizes the influence of all thirteen events on the day-to-day variability of surface O₃ from April-June 2010.

3.2 Dynamic Processes Conducive to Surface Impacts: June 7-14 Intrusions

We examine in this section the dominant meteorological conditions favorable for the direct transport of stratospheric O₃ to the surface of the Northwest versus the Southwest U.S., as illustrated by the June 7-14 intrusions.

Figure 2 depicts the development and intensification of two southeastward penetrating upper-level troughs during June 7-12 and their impacts on the downward transport of stratospheric O₃ to the lower troposphere. On June 7, the dry airstream of a mid-latitude cyclone was advected southeastward towards the northwest U.S. (Figure 2a), visible as the dry feature (green and blue) in the water vapor image (Figure 2d). A latitude-height curtain plot of O₃ distributions in AM3 reveals that O₃

from a tropopause fold descended isentropically toward the south to as low as 1 km above the surface off the coast of Los Angeles (Figure 2g). The June 7 and 8 soundings launched along the California coast recorded approximately 80 ppbv of O_3 and lower than 5% of RH at 1.0-3.5 km a.s.l. (Figure 3, 1st row). These features strongly support the existence of a sharp layer of enhanced O_3 above the boundary layer, attributed to stratospheric origin by AM3. Ozone enhancements were also detected at the surface monitoring sites in Idaho, Utah and Wyoming on June 8, leading to MDA8 O_3 in excess of 70-75 ppbv (Figure 4, top panels). AM3 estimates 20-35 ppbv of stratospheric contribution in these locations, although it slightly displaces the peak levels in surface air to the northwest.

Between June 9 and 10, a new upper-level trough formed and propagated southeastward to Northern Nevada (Figure 2, 2nd column). The June 9-10 soundings over Shasta, located on the western edge of the trough, measured >150 ppbv of O_3 within the tropopause fold at 9 km a.s.l., while both the Point Reyes and Point Sur sondes captured stratospheric O_3 remnants at 2-6 km a.s.l. (Figure 3, 2nd and 3rd row). By June 10, observed O_3 at Joshua Tree increased by a factor of 4 between 4 and 6 km from the previous day, indicating the arrival of stratospheric air to the lower troposphere of Southern California. At the surface downwind of the trough (Figure 4, 2nd row), the Nevada Great Basin and California Mojave Desert experienced elevated O_3 with stratospheric O_3 contributing as much as ~50% of the total in the model.

By June 12, this intrusion evolved into an elongated (~2000 km) and slender (~200 km) streamer, which is visible in the GOES-West water vapor image (Figure 2f) and represented in AM3 as greater than 4-5 PVU of potential vorticity at 250 hPa (Figure 2c). Isentropic descent of stratospheric O_3 detached from the tropopause led to the

formation of a distinct O₃ layer between 3 and 5 km above the California coast in the model (Figure 2i), in remarkable agreement with O₃ profiles measured by the June 12 soundings at Point Reyes, Point Sur, and Shasta (Figure 3, 4th row). In contrast to the coastal sites, the Joshua Tree sounding located in the vicinity of a cut-off low (Figure 2c) captured enhanced O₃ in the tropopause fold at 8 km a.s.l.

Injected stratospheric O₃ from this cut-off low was transported into surface air over the Southwest between June 12 and 15 (Figure 4, 3rd and 4th rows). The PCA of Langford et al [2012] shows a corresponding peak in the stratospheric contribution to surface air in the Los Angeles Basin on June 12. Transported stratospheric O₃ enhanced MDA8 O₃ above 70 ppbv at surface monitoring sites as far south as the U.S. Mexico border on June 14 (not shown). By June 15, six days after the initial tropopause fold over the U.S. West Coast on June 9, widespread entrainment of stratospheric O₃ into the boundary layer still contributed 30-40 ppbv to MDA8 O₃, and when combined with locally produced O₃ led to MDA8 O₃ levels in excess of 60 ppbv over the entire Southwest region.

The dynamic processes discussed above indicate an important role of deep stratospheric intrusions in driving the regional variability of surface O₃ over the western U.S. (e.g. Figure 4). Stratospheric intrusions that remain close to the polar jet stream above Southern Canada and the Northern U.S. primarily affect the surface of Wyoming, Utah and Colorado located immediately in the southern flank of the polar jet (e.g. June 7-8). In contrast, intrusions that break away from the polar jet as they advect toward the south are more effective at transporting O₃ to the lower troposphere of the Southwest and into surface air over regions within California, Arizona and New Mexico (e.g. June 9-14).

3.3 Stratospheric Influence on a Polluted Region: The May 27-29 Intrusion

A qualitatively similar meteorological situation occurred on May 27-29 (Figure S4). This intrusion appeared as a filamentary feature extending from the Gulf of Alaska to the California coast on May 27. A strong surface anticyclone developed over the eastern North Pacific Ocean on May 28, facilitating more effective transport of stratospheric O₃ to the lower troposphere of Southern California during this intrusion as compared to other events.

The May 28 soundings measured an approximately 2-km thick layer of elevated O₃ in excess of 100-150 ppbv sloping from 5-7 km above Northern California (Point Reyes and Shasta) to 2-4 km above Southern California (Joshua Tree and San Nicholas), coincident with decreasing RH, a marker for air of stratospheric origin (Figure 5). The elevated-O₃ layer just 2 km above Joshua Tree National Park persisted from May 28 through May 29, when it was also measured by an aircraft-based lidar [Langford et al., 2012]. AM3 captures these narrow layers of enhanced O₃ and estimates a stratospheric contribution of approximately 75%.

Given that San Nicholas Island and Joshua Tree National Park are each located just ~150 km away from the densely populated Los Angeles Basin, locally produced pollution may impact the lower free troposphere of this region under favorable meteorological conditions. Here we find in the model that simulated O₃ changes little at 2-5 km above both sites on May 28-29 after switching off NA anthropogenic emissions (green lines in Figure 5), supporting a dominant source from the stratosphere as inferred from the O₃S tracer.

We next examine transport of this enhanced O₃ aloft to the surface over the greater Los Angeles area and further east across the Mountain West. Figure 6 shows that surface O₃ mixing ratios at Joshua Tree rapidly increase during the growth of

daytime boundary layer on May 28 coincident with a substantial decrease in specific humidity, indicating the influence of subsiding dry air from the free troposphere. A similar phenomenon occurred at the surface monitoring sites in Arizona and Colorado on the following day owing to eastward transport. These measured features support attribution to stratospheric origin based on AM3 O₃S for these observed MDA8 O₃ enhancements in surface air (Figure 7). At several sites in Arizona and Colorado where observed MDA8 O₃ exceeds the 75 ppbv NAAQS threshold, the model estimates a stratospheric contribution of 50-60%.

Widespread entrainment of stratospheric O₃ into the boundary layer on May 29 led to ~10 ppbv increases in observed MDA8 O₃ over the entire Los Angeles Basin from the previous day (not shown). AM3 shows that the stratospheric contribution is 40-50% of total MDA8 O₃ in the model (Figure 7), representing the largest impacts over the Los Angeles area during CalNex, consistent with the PCA analysis by *Langford et al.* [2012]. The AM3 O₃S tracer over Southern California shows a synoptic deviation of up to 20-30 ppbv from monthly mean (Figure S5), similar to an O₃S tracer from the FLEXPART trajectory model using a domain filling technique that does not include stratospheric influence on the background [*Langford et al.*, 2012]. AM3 estimated a corresponding peak in O₃S mixing ratios on some days (e.g. May 20-22, May 28-29, June 10-11) when observed O₃ at Joshua Tree increases to 60-80 ppbv, implying that direct transport of stratospheric O₃ to the surface can occasionally enhance surface O₃ to levels near the NAAQS threshold over Southern California. We note that these O₃ enhancements are not as strong as on highly polluted days, which are dominated by local influence from the Los Angeles area (e.g., June 4-5, when the stratospheric influence is weakest).

3.4 Stratospheric Influence over the Four Corners Region: The May 22-24 and April 12-14 Intrusions

We next present two cases of stratospheric intrusions primarily affecting surface O₃ over the Four Corners Region (Utah, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico). On the afternoon of May 23, the airborne lidar aboard the NOAA Twin Otter aircraft measured O₃ mixing ratios greater than 150 ppbv at ~4.5 km a.s.l. along a flight leg ~10 km south of Joshua Tree (Figure 8). AM3 reproduces this enhanced-O₃ layer and attributes a stratospheric contribution in excess of ~100 ppbv, indicating the penetration of an unusually large tropopause fold over Southern California. This tropopause fold was also measured by the ozonesondes on May 21-22 when it was located in the upper troposphere over Northern California (Figures S2-S3).

While ozonesonde or lidar measurements were not available to confirm the presence of the April 12-14 intrusion in the free troposphere, the AIRS instrument onboard the NASA Aqua satellite captured a large-scale column enhancement of polar stratospheric O₃ extending to the U.S. West Coast on the afternoon of April 12 (Figure S1).

Intrusions on both May 22-24 and April 12-14 directly led to elevated surface O₃ over the U.S. Mountain West (Figure 9). For both events, the GFDL AM3 model reproduces well the 60-85 ppbv range of observed surface O₃ at 25 urban and rural sites and estimates approximately 50-75 ppbv of O₃ in the absence of NA anthropogenic emissions (green points). The O₃S tracer (blue points) indicates that ~50-60% of the NA background is of stratospheric origin.

The April 12-14 intrusion was the strongest intrusion during April-June 2010 affecting the surface areas over Colorado. Thirteen surface monitoring sites in Boulder, Denver and Colorado Springs, including six sites in metropolitan areas, experienced peak MDA8 O₃ concentrations greater than or equal to the 75 ppbv NAAQS

threshold during April 12-14 on days when O_3S indicates a stratospheric contribution of 40-55 ppbv (Figure 9d). Figure 10 shows that the surface regions experiencing high stratospheric influence in excess of 40 ppbv on April 13 are where the observed total O_3 pattern is enhanced. This intrusion pushed MDA8 O_3 concentration to 80-86 ppbv at several sites near Colorado Springs on 13-14 April 2010, comparable to the extreme case on 6 May 1999 described by *Langford et al* [2009].

3.5 Overall Stratospheric Impacts on Surface Ozone Variability

Time series of MDA8 O_3 from April-June 2010 at high-elevation western U.S. sites reveal thirteen observed episodes of 2-3 day duration where MDA8 $O_3 > 60$ ppbv are associated with increasing O_3S in the model surface layer (Figure 11; Table 1). Despite variations in the surface impacts of individual events, consistent synoptic patterns in AIRS total O_3 observations, GOES-West water vapor imagery, and GFS FNL analyses confirm the occurrence of favorable meteorological conditions during all thirteen events for transporting stratospheric O_3 to the surface, either directly within a deep intrusion, or from upper tropospheric background air that was enhanced by a recent intrusion.

There is a marked case-to-case variability in the intensity and surface destination once stratospheric O_3 detaches from the intrusion. Only a very deep trough that traverses the California coast is likely to influence the southwestern U.S. surface, a phenomenon that was particularly active in the late spring and early summer of 2010 (Section 3.1). Our analysis indicates that stratospheric intrusions are not just limited to surface O_3 enhancements over the central western and northern U.S. as noted by several studies [e.g. *Langford et al.*, 2009; *Lefohn et al.*, 2011]. Occasionally they can directly lead to episodes of elevated surface O_3 as far south as the vicinity of the U.S. southwestern border. For example, the AQS site (~2 km a.s.l.) near Silver City located in Southern New Mexico recorded peak MDA8 O_3 of

70-80 ppbv approximately 1-2 days after the passage of upper-level troughs, coincident with rising O₃S mixing ratios in the model (Figure 11, right panel). Two days after the May 11 intrusion measured at the free troposphere of California [Langford *et al.*, 2012; Neuman *et al.*, 2012], observed MDA8 O₃ exceeds 70 ppbv at Big Bend National Park in Southwestern Texas, representing the southern most surface impacts from stratospheric intrusions during CalNex.

Figure 11 shows that the GFDL AM3 model generally captures observed synoptic variability of MDA8 O₃ in surface air, which is dominated by background influence (primarily stratospheric O₃ intrusions) rather than by regional pollution. For the day-to-day variability, the correlation coefficients of simulated O₃ with observations range from 0.42-0.74 for the total, from 0.32-0.62 for the NA background, and from 0.22-0.66 for the stratospheric contribution. At several sites (e.g. GRB, GRC, CAN), the higher correlation of NA background with observations as compared to O₃S reflects the influence of Asian pollution events (e.g. May 8-9 and June 20-22) [Lin *et al.*, 2012].

4 Overall GFDL AM3 Evaluations

4. 1 Stratospheric Intrusion Processes

On the basis of the process-oriented evaluation in Section 3, we conclude that the GFDL AM3 model with ~50x50 km² horizontal resolution, nudged to GFS winds, reproduces the principal features of deep stratospheric intrusions, including the evolution of synoptic conditions, the descent of detached stratospheric O₃ to the lower troposphere, and its impacts on episodes of elevated O₃ in surface air. Specifically, AM3 resolves the filamentary features of stratospheric intrusions observed in the satellite imagery (Figures 2, S1-S4, Lin *et al.*, 2012), indicating the nudging technique succeeds in capturing the key synoptic conditions. Analysis of ozonesonde and lidar measurements (Figures 3, 5, and 8) demonstrates that AM3

reproduces the observed layered structure, sharp O₃ gradients of deep intrusions and associated day-to-day variability of O₃ over the western U.S. mid- and lower troposphere, a marked improvement upon previous models [e.g. *Roelofs et al., 2003; Hudman et al., 2004; Liang et al., 2007*].

The e90-based O₃S tracer tagging technique (Section 2.3) provides a robust method for estimating the contribution of STT to tropospheric O₃. For example, the greatest concentrations of O₃S-90 tracer in the troposphere typically occur at the altitudes where observed RH suggests influence of dry air from the stratosphere. These intrusion layers also coincide with the enhanced background (green lines in Figures 3 and 5), which is dominated by the stratospheric contribution but estimated independent of the O₃S tagging technique.

AM3 has a tendency to overestimate O₃ both in the upper troposphere (e.g. top row of Figure 3) and lower troposphere (e.g. bottom row of Figure 3). It is unclear that these biases can be fully attributed to excessive stratospheric influence as the bias is typically smallest at the altitude with strongest stratospheric influence. At several locations (e.g. at SH on June 9-10 and RY on June 10), the model is clearly overestimating O₃, which may reflect too much stratospheric influence. We next examine any relationship between the model surface O₃ biases and this potentially excessive stratospheric contribution to the lower free troposphere.

4.2 Surface Ozone

The model surface O₃ is biased high by ~6 ppbv on average over the intermountain west. During observed high-O₃ episodes, there is no evidence for a systematic model bias in surface O₃ over the Rocky Mountains in Wyoming and Northern Colorado (Figure 11, 1st column). In contrast, the model consistently overestimates the observed MDA8 values by up to 10-20 ppbv in Arizona and New Mexico, which

seems to reflect excessive stratospheric influence (Figure 11, 3rd column, auxiliary Figure S6). The model typically spreads the O₃ enhancement across a wider range of sites over the Southwest rather than capturing the observed localized features (e.g. April 6-7). While the source of this problem is difficult to fully attribute, it may reflect inadequate representation of boundary layer mixing with the free troposphere, combined with limited resolution of sharp topography and meso-scale meteorology. These representation problems likely also contribute to offsets in the timing and placement of peak stratospheric impacts in surface air (e.g. Figure 4).

Figure 12 shows that our estimated stratospheric influence is moderately correlated ($r^2=0.38-0.46$) with model biases across the central western U.S. between 38-45° N (box in Figure 1) and high-altitude sites across the intermountain west when observed MDA8 O₃ exceeds 60 ppbv. The correlation does not necessarily indicate a systematic model overestimate of stratospheric contribution to high-O₃ events as both under- and over-estimates occur. Indeed, the r^2 values decrease to 0.18-0.26 for all points with positive biases.

We next attempt to remove the influence of excessive STT (such as may occur due to problems with resolving the timing and spatial location of deep intrusions, particularly in the SW region) in the lower troposphere and surface air. In places where we have observational constraints, we apply a bias correction to the simulated stratospheric and NA background contributions to surface O₃. For each day, at all sites where AM3 overestimates observed MDA8 O₃ and where the estimated stratospheric contribution exceeds the model bias, we assume that the bias is caused entirely by excessive stratospheric O₃. We thus subtract this bias from the AM3 estimate of stratospheric O₃ and NA background. The results thus represent a conservative estimate for stratospheric influence on surface O₃ as reported in

Section 5 (note that we do not correct for underestimates).

5. Statistics of Stratospheric Impacts on U.S. Surface Ozone in Spring

We summarize in this section the overall statistics of stratospheric impacts on springtime ground-level O₃ drawing upon more than 10,000 samples of MDA8 O₃ measurements and model results from April-June 2010, and discuss the implications for attaining the O₃ NAAQS in western U.S. urban and rural areas.

5.1 Regional Variability across the Continental U.S.

Figure 13a shows that the western U.S. is the region where STT contributes most surface O₃ concentrations in spring, reflecting a combination of more frequent erosion of cut-off lows during strong frontal passages and a higher elevation to intersect stratospheric O₃ subsiding behind cold fronts. The minimum stratospheric influence in surface air occurs in the Southeast, where air masses advected from the Gulf of Mexico limit influence from westerly transport in the lower troposphere [*Fiore et al., 2002; Cooper et al., 2011*]. Within the western U.S., the model suggests strong stratospheric impacts on the Sierra Nevada mountain range and Nevada Air Basins, where monitoring sites are fairly sparse (Figure 13b). Measurements in these rural areas would help improve our understanding of stratospheric influence on O₃ air quality in nearby urban areas.

The bias-corrected estimates of median stratospheric impacts in surface air range from 10–22, 8–13, and 3–8 ppbv in the West, Northeast, and Southeast, respectively (Figure 13c). In the intermountain west, the stratospheric exchange can contribute 20-30% of the total measured O₃ averaged over April through June. The AM3 estimate for the western U.S. is approximately 30-50% higher than the estimates by *Lelieveld and Dentener* [2000] and *Collins et al.* [2003], and a factor of 2 greater than the estimate of *Fiore et al.* [2003].

Surface regions subject to a maximum stratospheric impact of 35-55 ppbv on MDA8 O₃ include Wyoming, Utah, Colorado, Southern California, Arizona, and New Mexico (Figure 13d), consistent with the case studies in Section 3. Although local emissions dominate surface O₃ pollution over the northeastern U.S. (Figure 13b), AM3 estimates a maximum stratospheric contribution of 30-45 ppbv at several scattered sites, supporting prior publications that deep STT can occur over this region [Moody *et al.*, 1998; Sprenger and Wernli, 2003; Hocking *et al.*, 2007; Bourqui and Trepanier, 2010; Lefohn *et al.*, 2011]. Thompson *et al.* and Pfister *et al.* [2007] estimate a 20-25% stratospheric contribution to the total tropospheric O₃ column over the northeastern U.S. in summer. Further process-oriented analysis of intensive measurements with a model is needed to confidently assess the influence of deep STT on surface O₃ air quality over this region.

5.2 Implications for Attaining Ozone Air Quality Standards

Next we assess the O₃ enhancements from stratospheric intrusions for the entire distribution of observed MDA8 O₃ over the intermountain west (Figure 14). Statistics of both original and bias-corrected AM3 estimates of the NA Background and the stratospheric contribution for each 10 ppbv bin of observed O₃ are shown. We focus on the bias-corrected estimates at the high end of the observed O₃ distribution, which has major implications for the NAAQS-setting process and health risk assessment associated with O₃ exposure.

Both NA background O₃ and its stratospheric component peak at the high-end of the observed O₃ distribution for the high-elevation sites across the intermountain west (Figure 14b) as well as for the AQS sites in the central western U.S. (Figure 14a). At high-elevation sites, 25th-75th percentiles of stratospheric contribution range from 14-25 ppbv when observed O₃ is 60-70 ppbv and increase to 17-40 ppbv in the 70-85

ppbv range. The median value of the stratospheric contribution at the AQS sites primarily within EPA Region 8 (Figure 1) is approximately 10 ppbv lower as compared to the high-elevation sites when observed O₃ is above 70 ppbv.

For relatively polluted areas, such as the Central Valley, Southern California and Las Vegas, transport of stratospheric O₃ to the surface can mix with high levels of locally produced O₃ pollution. At these areas (Figure S7), NA background and its stratospheric component peak in the 60-80 ppbv range of observed O₃ and both tend to decline by 2-5 ppbv when observed O₃ is in the 80-100 ppbv range. This variability is more qualitatively consistent with earlier work for the eastern U.S. [e.g. Fiore et al., 2002; 2003].

AM3 captures episodes of high-O₃ in excess of 70 ppbv at high-elevation western U.S. sites. The maximum background MDA8 O₃ concentration can reach 60-75 ppbv (bias-corrected) and in these cases is primarily driven by stratospheric O₃. In contrast, two recent model estimates by Zhang et al [2011] and Emery et al [2011], show that the NA background is always below 60-65 ppbv. The median value of NA background when observed O₃ exceeds 70 ppbv is also ~10 ppbv greater in AM3 estimates.

Table 2 shows that AM3 captures accurately the observed O₃ values in excess of 60 ppbv at high-elevation sites, and estimates a total background contribution of 83% and a North American anthropogenic contribution of 17%. The stratospheric contribution and Asian pollution comprise 47% and 10% of the total background, respectively. The dominant contribution from stratospheric O₃ and larger impacts with increasing O₃ indicates a major role for stratospheric O₃ intrusions in driving springtime surface high-O₃ events over the U.S. Mountain West, posing a major

challenge for attaining the NAAQS.

6. Conclusions

To determine the extent to which naturally occurring stratospheric O₃ intrusions contribute to exceedances of the U.S. National Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) for O₃, we analyzed a suite of satellite and *in situ* observations over the western U.S. from April-June 2010 utilizing a global chemistry-climate model at ~50x50 km² (GFDL AM3) [Lin et al., 2012]. While Lefohn et al. [2001,2011] and Langford et al. [2009, 2012] have used observations and trajectory models to infer a stratospheric influence on surface O₃ events, here we quantify that influence with a new stratospheric O₃ tracer (Section 2.3) implemented in GFDL AM3 with fully coupled stratosphere and troposphere chemistry [Donner et al., 2011; Naik et al., in prep].

Our process-oriented analysis shows that AM3 reproduces the principal features of deep stratospheric O₃ intrusions. Specifically, it captures the evolution of synoptic conditions, the descent of stratospheric O₃ to the lower troposphere as evidenced by its replication of the layered structures and sharp gradients observed in O₃ profiles (Figures 5 and 8), and the development of high-O₃ events observed in surface air (Figure 9). The good agreement builds confidence in the utility of AM3 for identifying “exceptional stratospheric intrusion events” that elevate surface O₃ to values above the NAAQS threshold [U.S. EPA, 2007; Langford et al., 2009]. The most significant weakness of the model is a high surface O₃ bias of ~6 ppbv on average, and occasionally up to 10-20 ppbv in daily maximum 8-hour average (MDA8) over the Southwest during the intrusion events. We correct the AM3 estimate of stratospheric O₃ contribution to account for this model bias by conservatively assuming that the model overestimates at ground-based measurement sites are entirely driven by excessive stratospheric O₃ influence (Section 4.2).

Thirteen stratospheric O₃ intrusion events, occurring approximately weekly from April-June 2010 (Table 1), led directly to observed MDA8 O₃ above 60 ppbv, and sometimes over the 75-ppbv NAAQS threshold, at surface sites. Several of these events occurred in suburban areas of California and Colorado. This finding is in notable contrast to prior work concluding that stratospheric influence in surface air is rare [e.g. *Fiore et al., 2003; U.S. EPA, 2007*]. We show that transport of stratospheric O₃ to the surface can drive a substantial portion of the observed synoptic variability in western U.S. surface O₃ (Figures 4 and 11) and contributes more than O₃ produced from North American and Asian anthropogenic emissions (Table 2). During four deep intrusion events (April 12-14, May 22-24, May 27-29, and June 7-8), stratospheric influence accounts for 30-55 ppbv of O₃ in surface air (e.g. Figures 7 and 9), composing 50-60% of the total. These stratospheric intrusions elevated background O₃ concentrations to MDA8 values of 60-75 ppbv. Both the background O₃ concentration and its stratospheric component peak at the high-end of the observed O₃ distribution over the U.S. Mountain West (Figure 14).

AM3 estimates of stratospheric impacts on springtime surface O₃ over the western U.S. is generally higher on average, and up to 2-3 times greater during the intrusions, than previous model estimates [e.g. *Lelieveld and Dentener 2000; Collins et al., 2003; Fiore et al., 2003; Langford et al., 2012*]. While some of the discrepancies may reflect interannual variability associated with ENSO and other factors (Section 3.1), the major improvement of GFDL AM3 upon previous chemical transport models, including its higher resolution and representation of stratospheric chemistry and UT/LS dynamics, builds confidence in its estimates of extreme impacts from stratospheric intrusions.

Our analysis implies that large stratospheric impacts may pose a major challenge for attaining the ozone NAAQS with domestic emission controls over the western U.S., particularly if a threshold value in the 60-70 ppbv range were to be adopted [U.S. EPA, 2010]. Some climate models project a higher contribution of stratospheric exchange to tropospheric O₃ under future climate scenarios, presumably due to stratospheric O₃ recovery and an accelerated stratospheric circulation in a warmer climate [e.g. *Collins et al., 2003; Austin and Wilson 2006; Stevenson et al., 2006; Hegglin and Shepherd, 2009; Zeng et al, 2010*]. Further analysis of long-term chemical and meteorological observations may reveal key connections between climate and stratospheric impacts on surface O₃ air quality.

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Table 1: Stratospheric intrusion events contributing to surface ozone episodes during April-June 2010

Events	Synoptic conditions in satellite imagery	Descent captured in ozonesondes/lidar	Major surface impact regions
Apr. 6-7	AIRS *	Not measured	Colorado, New Mexico (Fig. 11)
Apr. 9-10	AIRS *	Not measured	Wyoming (Fig. 11)
Apr. 12-14 ⁺	AIRS (Fig. S1)	Not measured	Spread across Mountain West (Figs. 9-10)
Apr. 21-23	AIRS *	Not measured	Colorado, Nevada (Fig. 11)
Apr. 28-29	AIRS *	Not measured	Colorado, Wyoming (Fig. 11)
May 11-13	AIRS/GOES-West*	Langford et al [2012]	Arizona, New Mexico, W. Texas (Fig. 11)
May 17-20	AIRS (Lin et al.,2012)	Lin et al., [2012]	Wyoming (Fig. 11)
May 22-24	AIRS/GOES-West (Fig. S2)	Figs. 8 and S3	Colorado and New Mexico (Fig. 9)
May 27-29	AIRS/GOES-West (Fig. S4)	Fig. 5	California, Nevada, Arizona (Fig. 7)
Jun. 7-8	AIRS/GOES-West (Fig. 2)	Fig. 4	Idaho, Utah, Wyoming (Fig. 4)
Jun. 9-14	AIRS/GOES-West (Fig. 2)	Fig. 4	Spread in Southwest (Figs. 4)
Jun. 16-17	AIRS/GOES-West*	Lin et al., [2012]	Colorado (Fig. 11)
Jun. 22-23	AIRS*	Not measured	Colorado (Fig. 11)

+Gray shading denotes case studies in Sections 3.2-3.4

*Data not shown

Table 2 MDA8 ozone concentrations (ppbv) in surface air averaged over 15 high-elevation sites across the U.S. Mountain West for April-June 2010

	Mean	Mean for days > 60 ppbv
Total observed	55.3 ± 8.3	65.1 ± 4.4
Total modeled	61.0 ± 8.6	66.0 ± 8.3
NA anthropogenic	11.0 ± 5.0	11.6 ± 5.3
Total background ⁺	50.0 ± 10.6	54.5 ± 10.6
Asian anthropogenic*	4.7 ± 2.4	5.3 ± 2.6
Stratospheric	22.3 ± 11.5	25.4 ± 12.3

+Includes the contribution from Asian pollution and stratospheric O₃

*Based on AM3 simulations as described by *Lin et al* [2012]

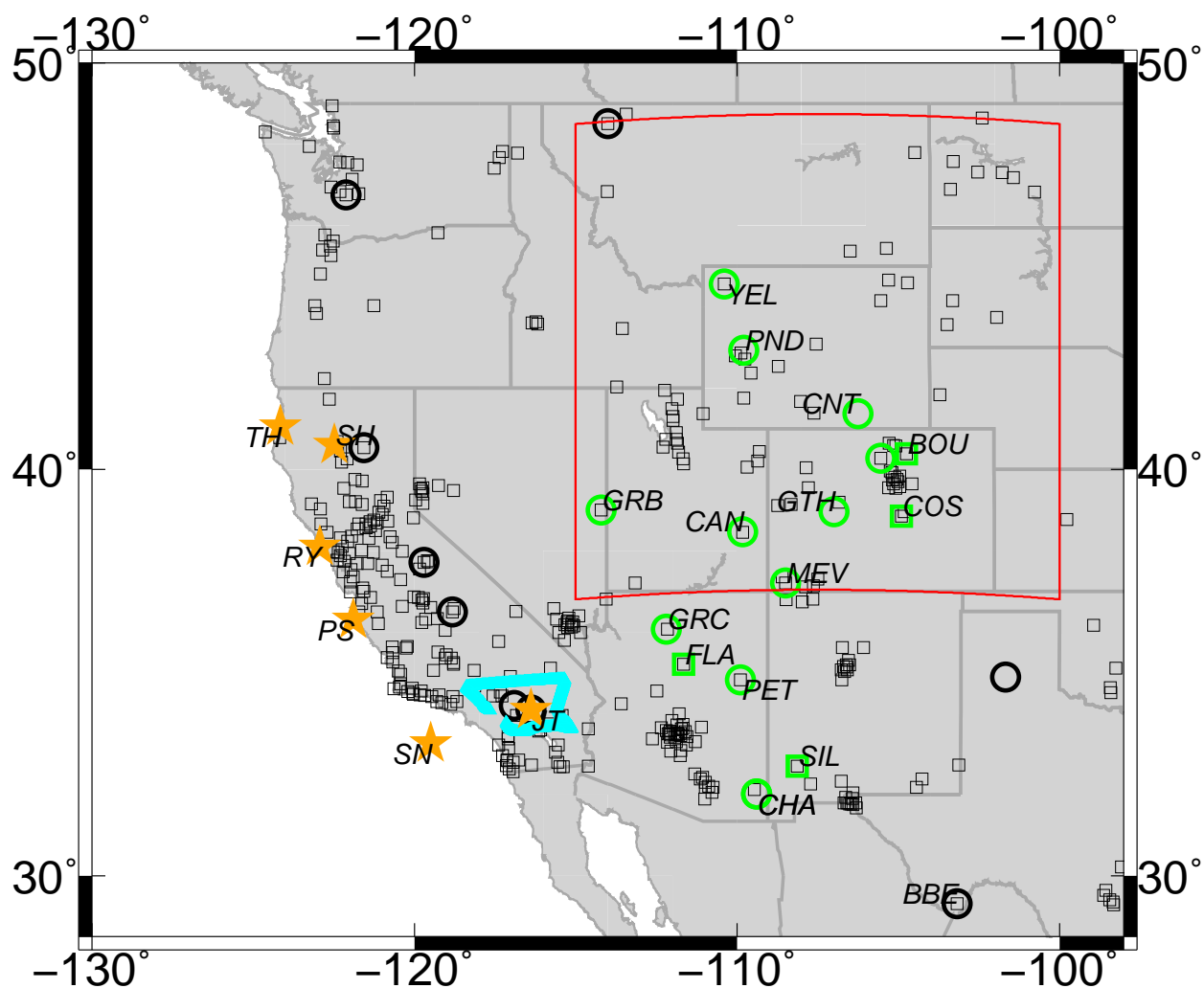


Figure 1. Map showing locations of six ozonesonde sites (orange stars) in California, flight path of an aircraft-based ozonolidar on May 23 (solid cyan, Figure 8), and surface monitoring sites from CASTNet (circles) and AQS (squares). The green symbols indicate 15 select sites analyzed in Figures 12b and 14b. The red box encloses the AQS sites analyzed in Figures 12a and 14a. These AQS sites are primarily located in EPA Region 8 (Utah, Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, North and South Dakota).

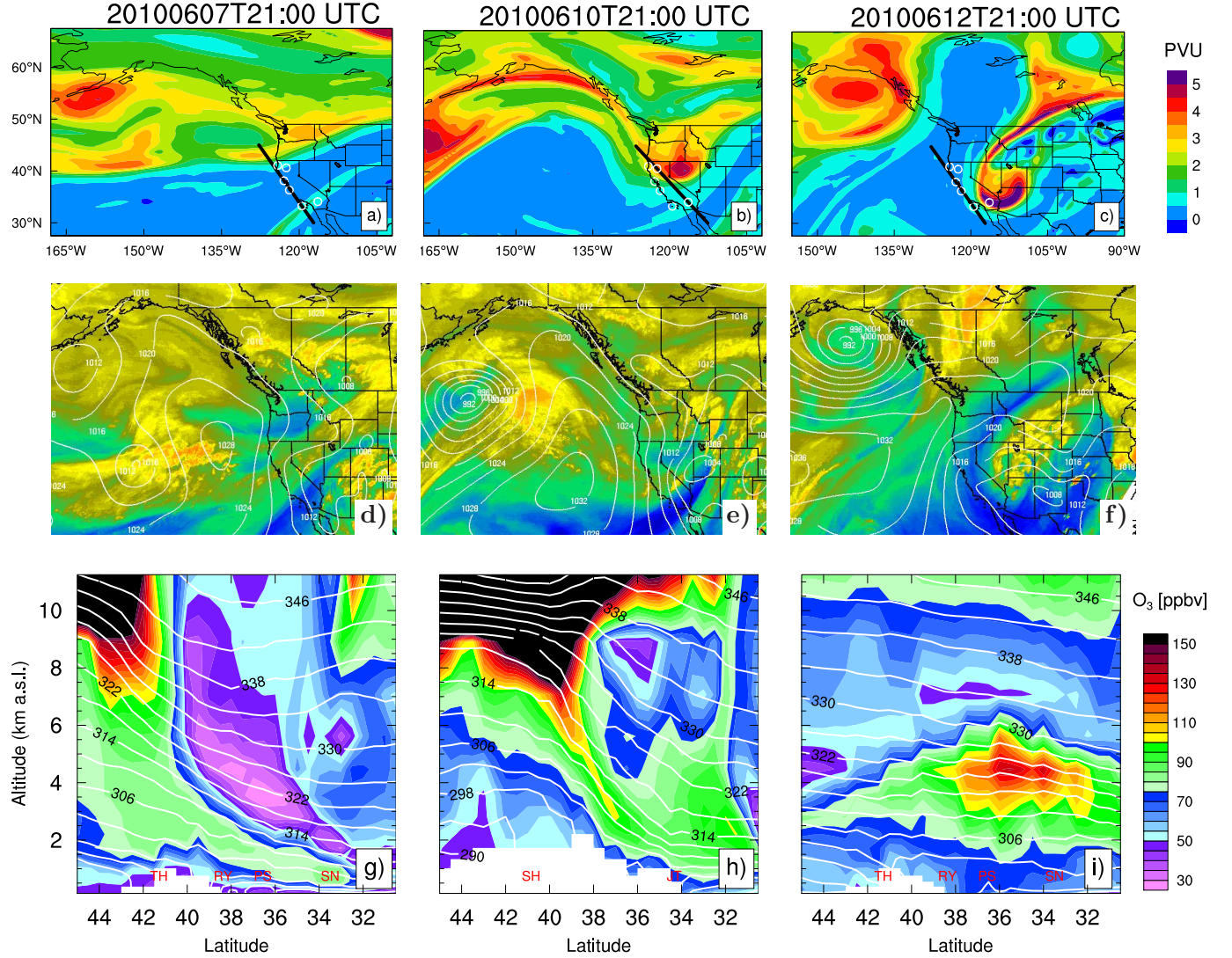


Figure 2. Synoptic conditions during June 7-14 intrusions: (a-c) AM3 250 hPa potential vorticity; (d-f) GOES-West water vapor images (with mean sea level pressure contours), which indicate relative humidity in the mid- to upper troposphere, with reds and yellows indicating moist air and blues and greens indicating drier air; (g-i) Latitude-height curtain plots of AM3 ozone distributions (shading) and isentropic surfaces (contoured in K) along the coastal or inland transects (thick lines) in a-c. White circles in a-c and red letters in g-i denote locations of ozonesondes.

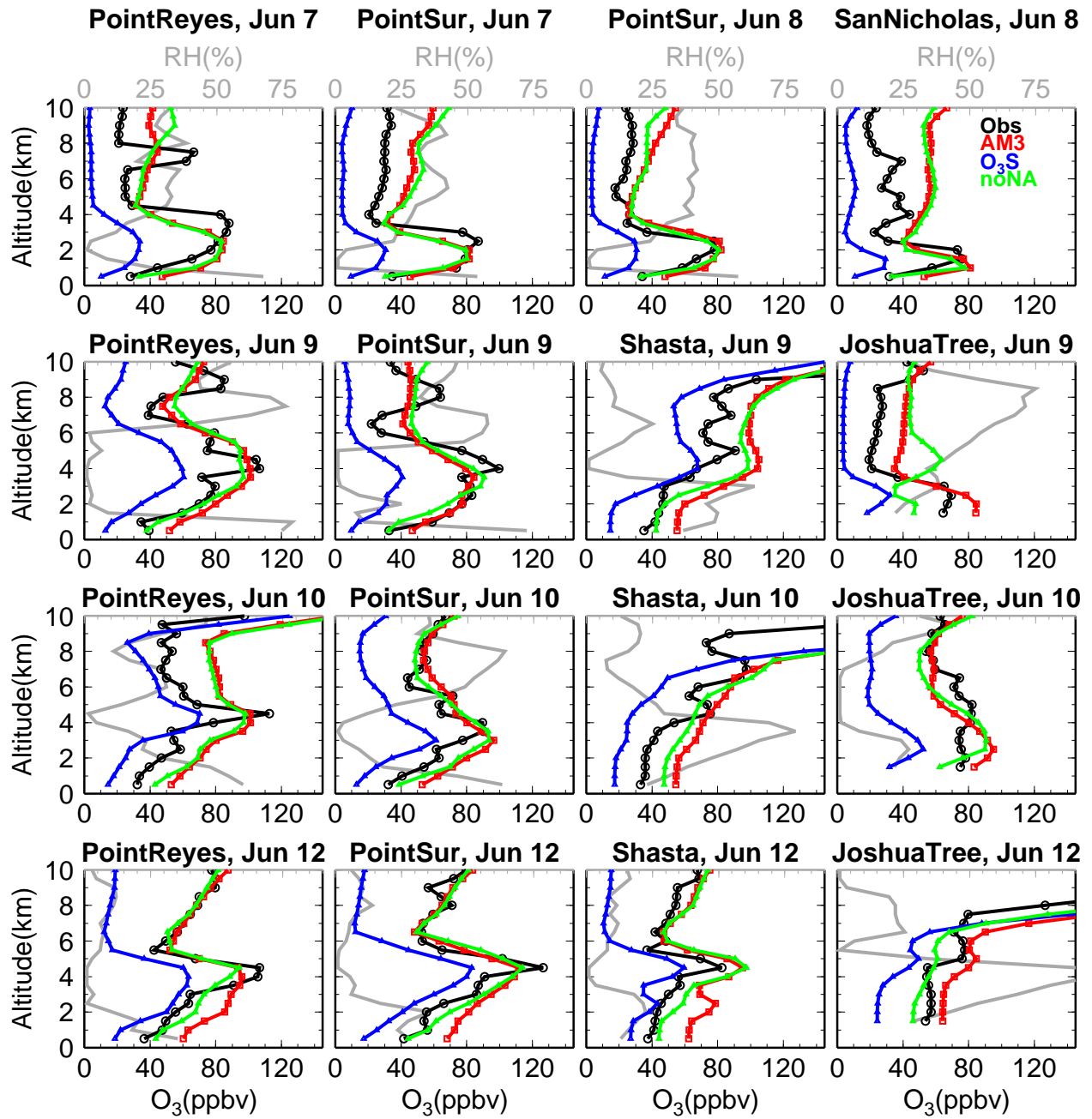


Figure 3. Ozone profiles at the June 7-12 soundings as observed (black) and estimated (red) by the GFDL AM3 model. Also shown are observed relative humidity (gray), AM3 stratospheric O₃ tracer (blue) (Section 2.3), and estimated ozone with North American anthropogenic emissions turned off (green) (Section 2.2). Model results have been interpolated to sonde pressure and averaged over 0.5-km altitude bins.

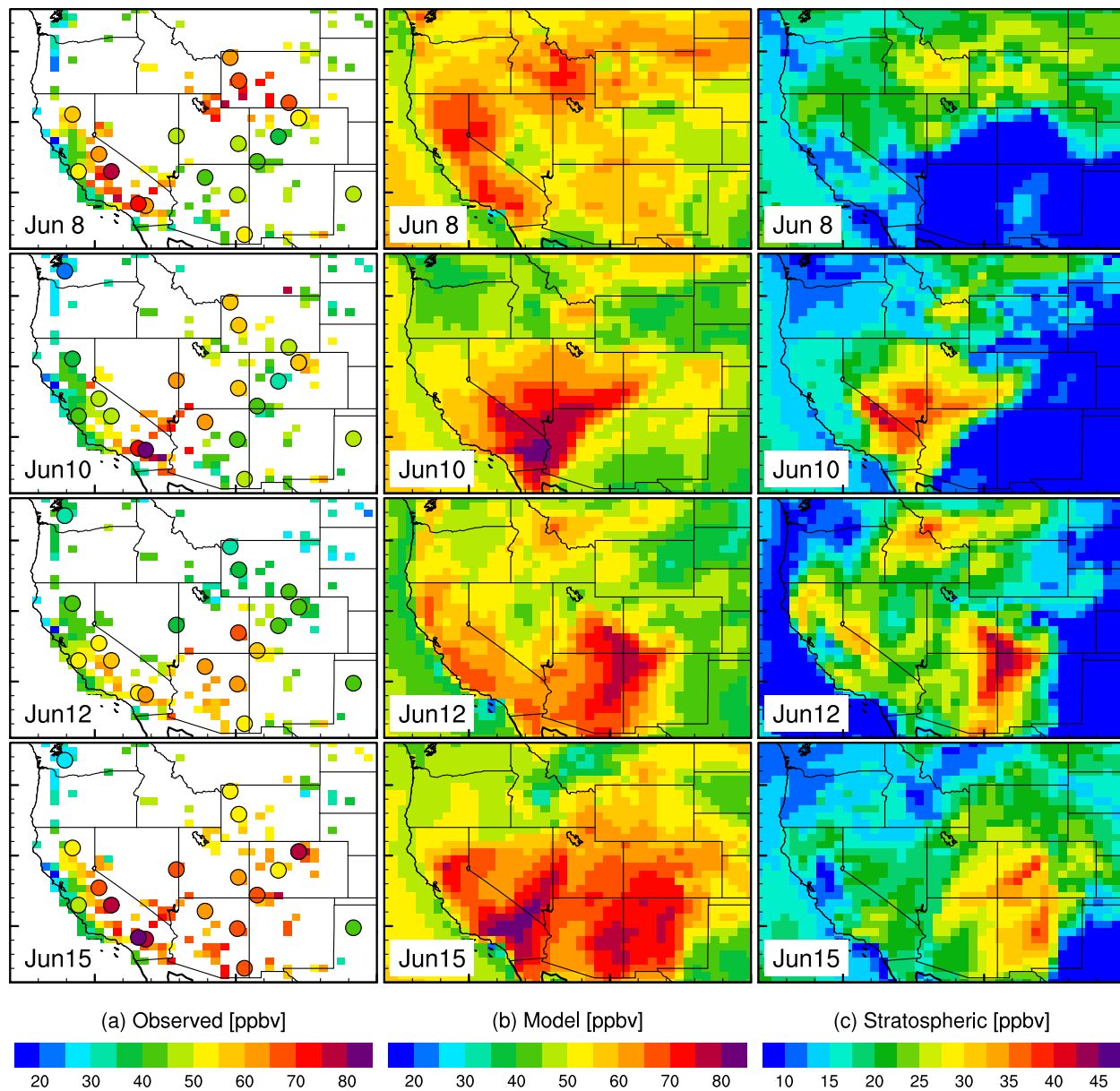


Figure 4. Daily maximum 8-hour average ozone in surface air from June 8-15: (a) observed at CASTNet sites (circles) and AQS averaged over the 0.5° by 0.625° grid (squares), (b) simulated by the GFDL AM3 model and (c) the stratospheric contribution (on a different color scale).

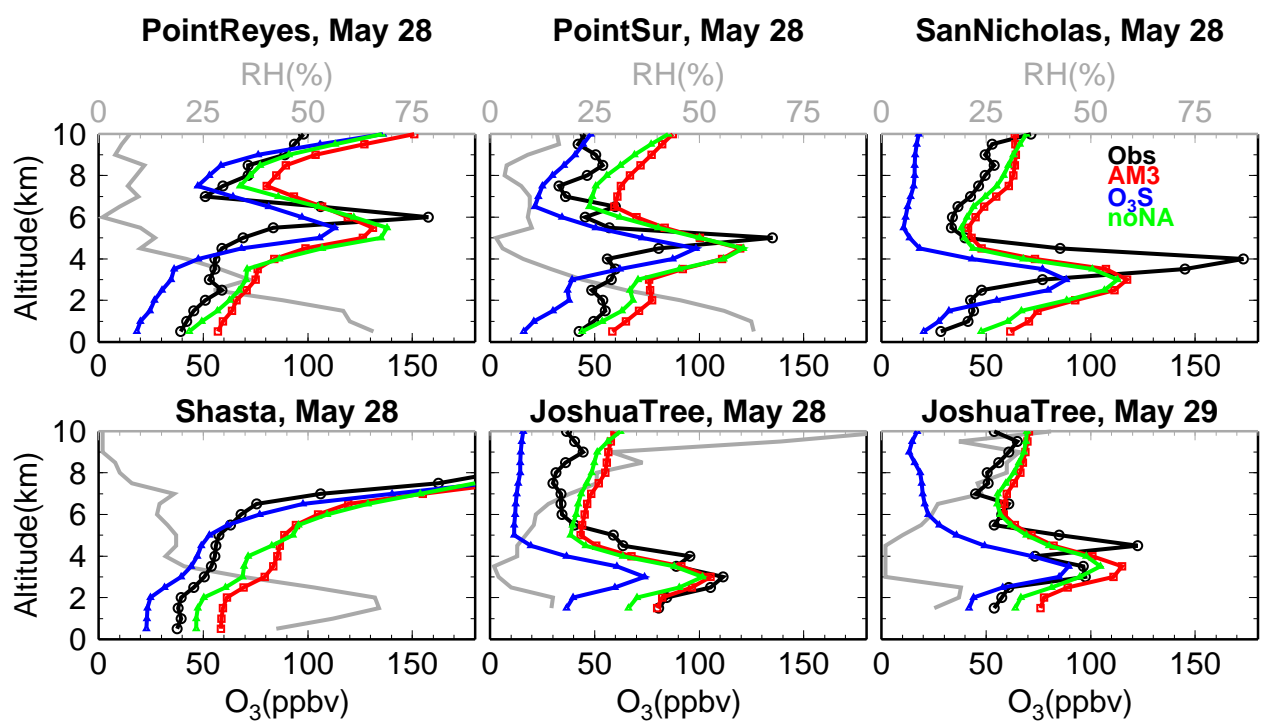


Figure 5. Same as Figure 3, but for the May 28-29 intrusion.

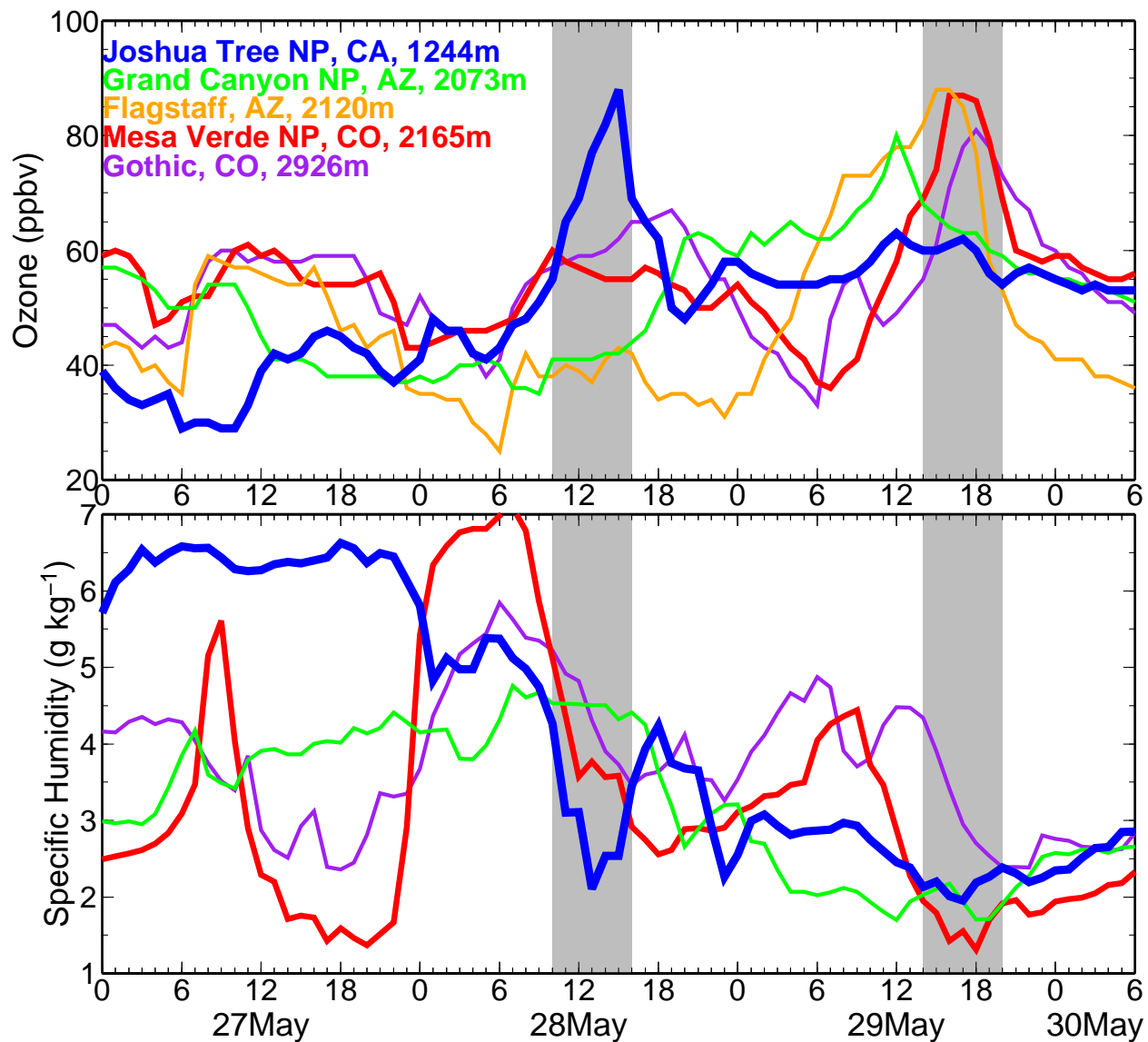


Figure 6. Time series of observed hourly ozone mixing ratios and specific humidity in surface air at the indicated stations (Figure 7b) from May 27-30, 2010. Note that humidity is not measured at Flagstaff. The gray shading masks the period at local time when the boundary layer is well mixed.

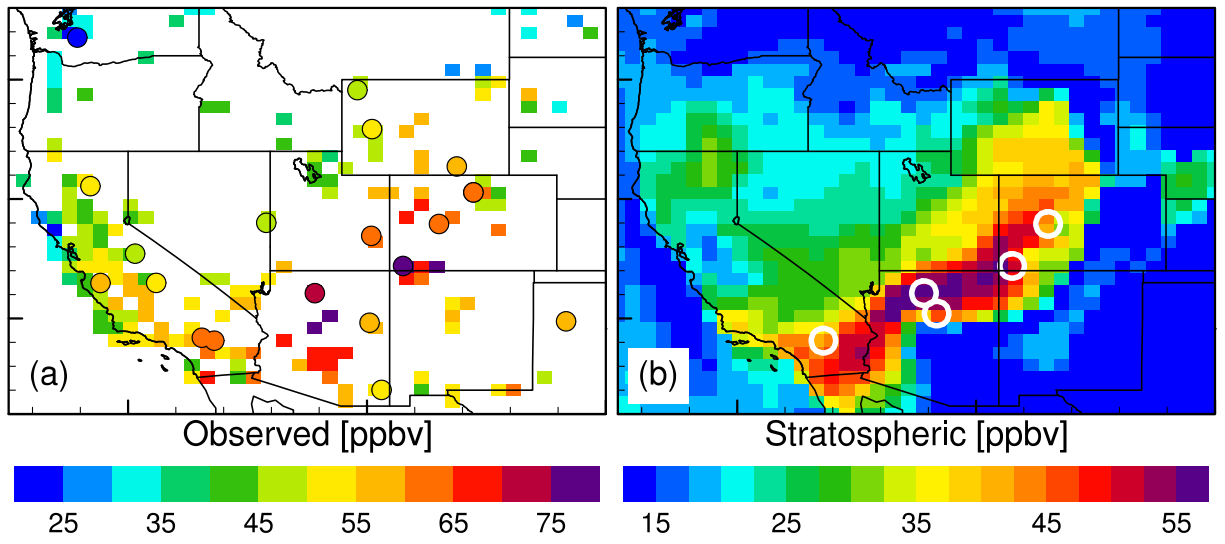


Figure 7. Daily maximum 8-hour average ozone in surface air on May 29, 2010, as (a) observed and (b) estimated by AM3 from the stratospheric intrusion. The white circles in (b) denote the surface sites experiencing drier conditions on the afternoon as shown in Figure 6.

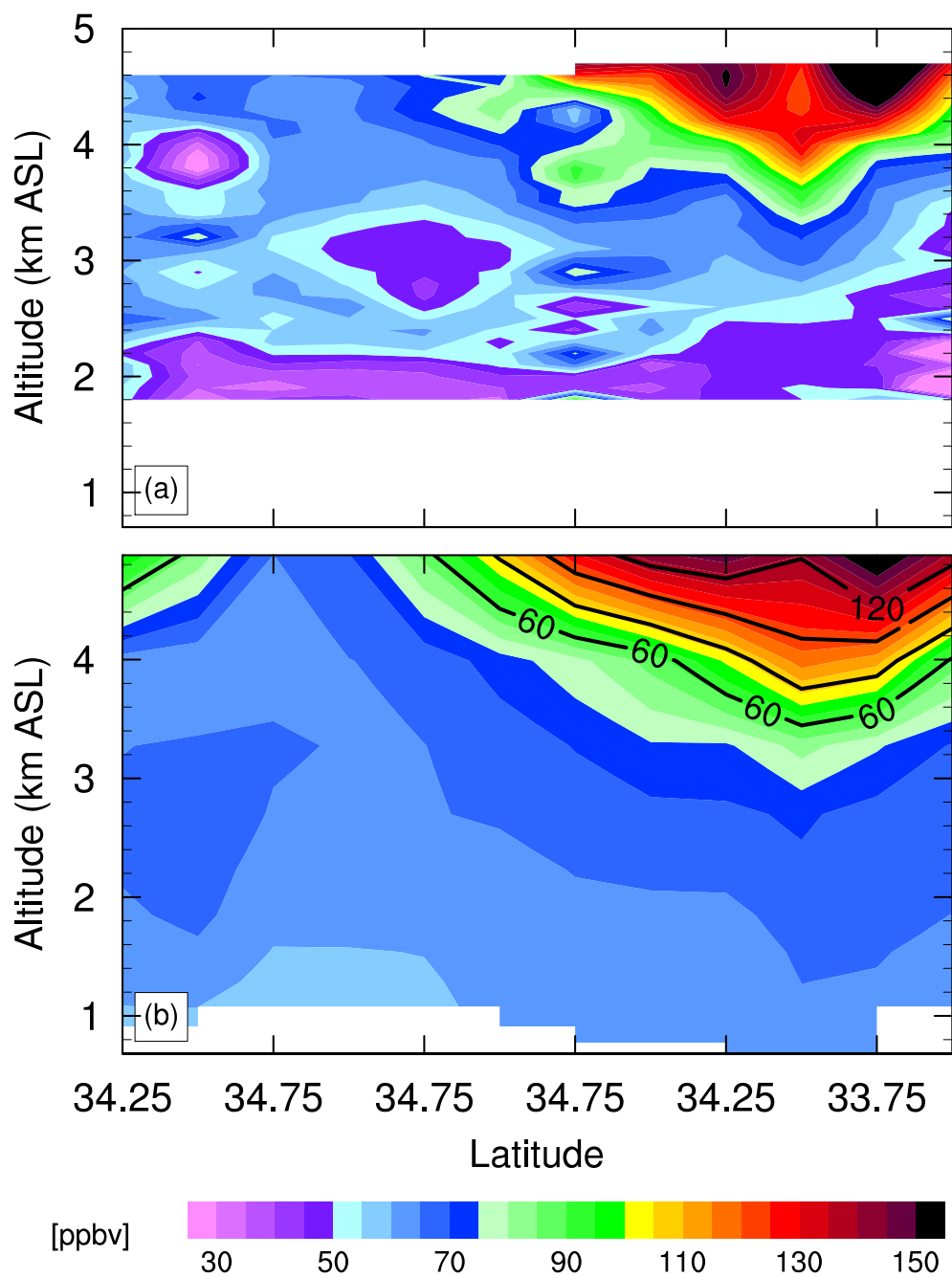


Figure 8. Latitude-height curtain plots of ozone mixing ratios over Southern California for May 23 as (a) measured by an aircraft-based lidar (Figure 1) and (b) simulated by the GFDL AM3 model. Also shown is AM3 stratospheric ozone tracer contoured every 20 ppbv starting at 60 ppbv.

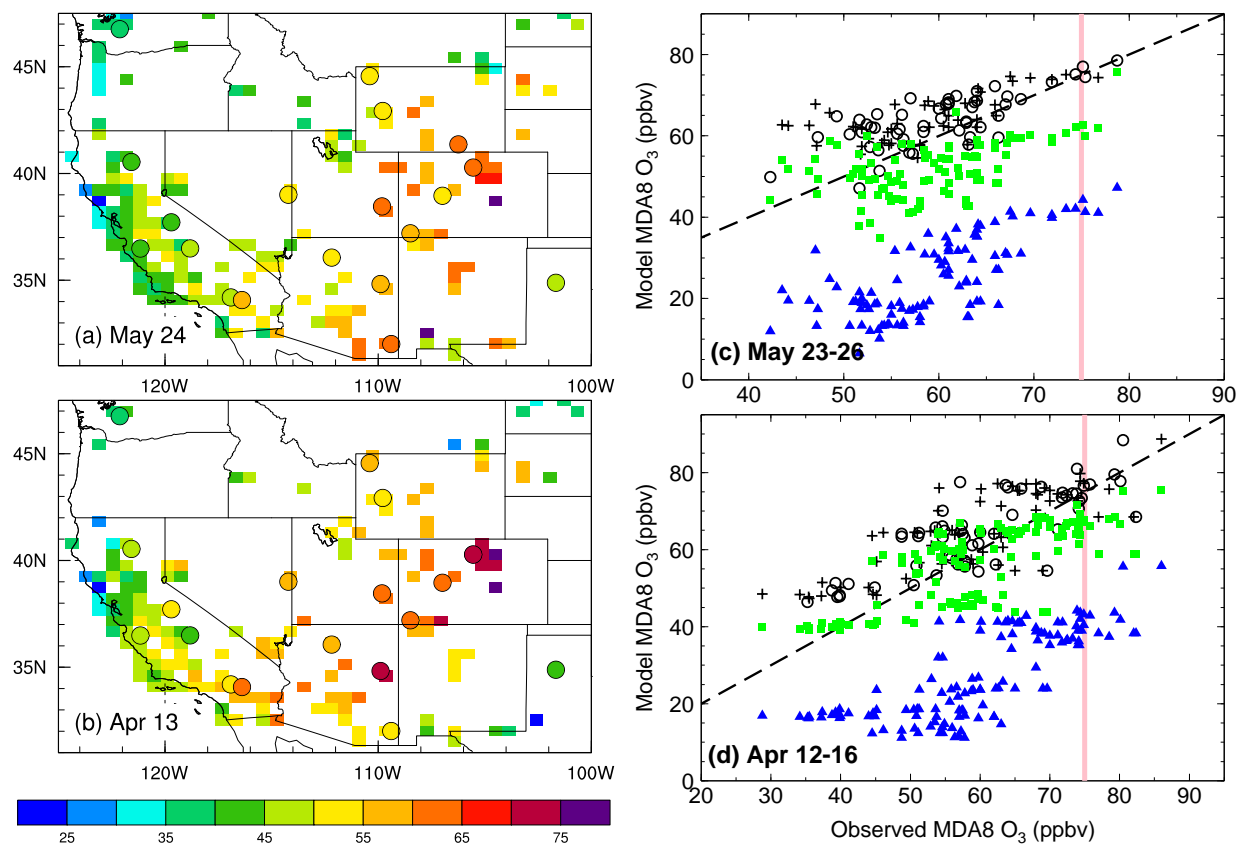


Figure 9. (a-b) Observed daily maximum 8-hour average (MDA8) ozone in surface air on May 24 and April 13. (c-d) Scatter plots of observed versus simulated MDA8 ozone (black) as well as corresponding contributions from stratospheric intrusions (blue) and NA background (green, Section 2.2) at 25 sites where peak MDA8 values exceed 60 ppbv during May 23-26 and April 12-16. Crosses indicate 9 urban and suburban sites located in Denver, Boulder, and Colorado Springs. Also shown is the 1:1 line and the NAAQS threshold.

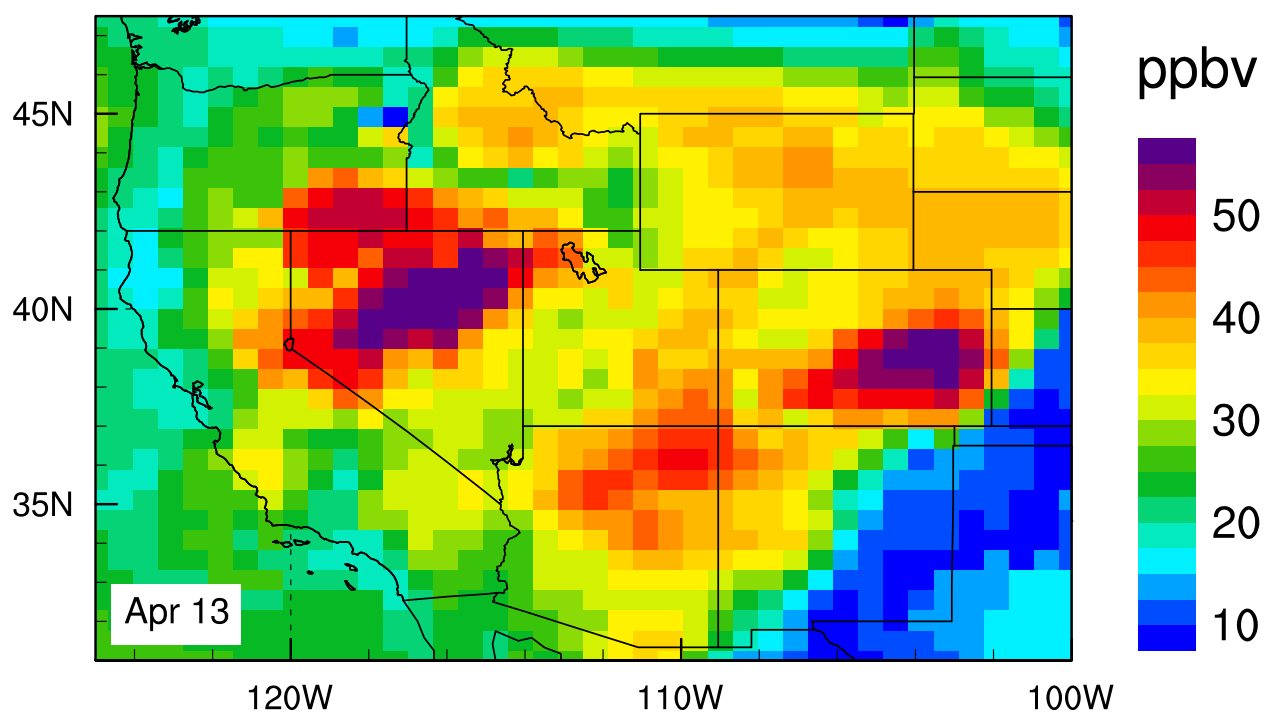


Figure 10. Daily maximum 8-hour average concentrations of stratospheric ozone tracer in the model surface layer on April 13, 2010.

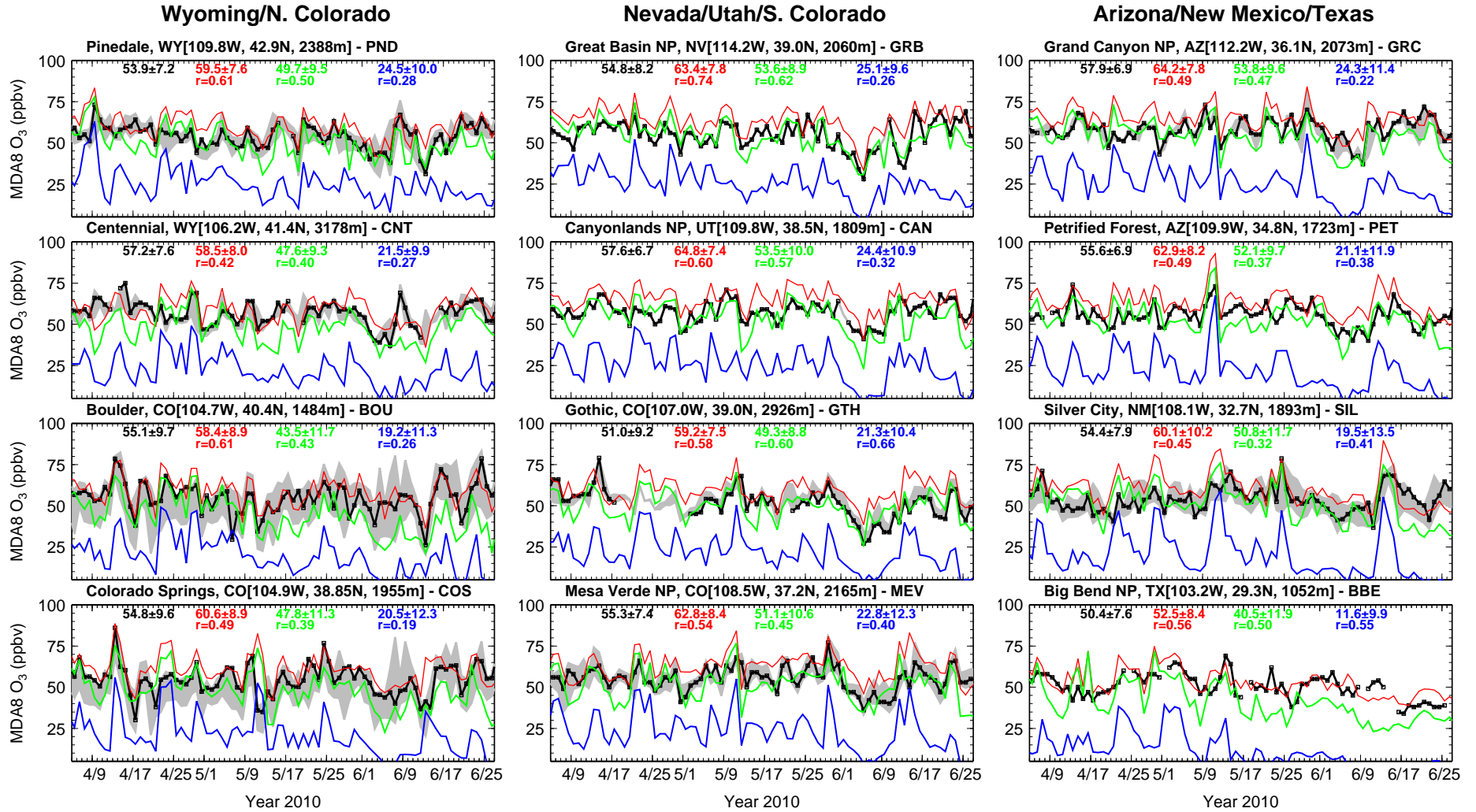


Figure 11. Time series of daily maximum 8-hour average O_3 in surface air at western U.S. sites (Fig. 1) for April through June 2010 as observed (black) and simulated (red) by the GFDL AM3 model. The gray shading represents range of observed O_3 available ~ 100 km from the indicated site. Also shown are the model estimates for NA background (green) and the stratospheric contribution (blue), mean \pm standard deviations, and the model correlation coefficients with observations.

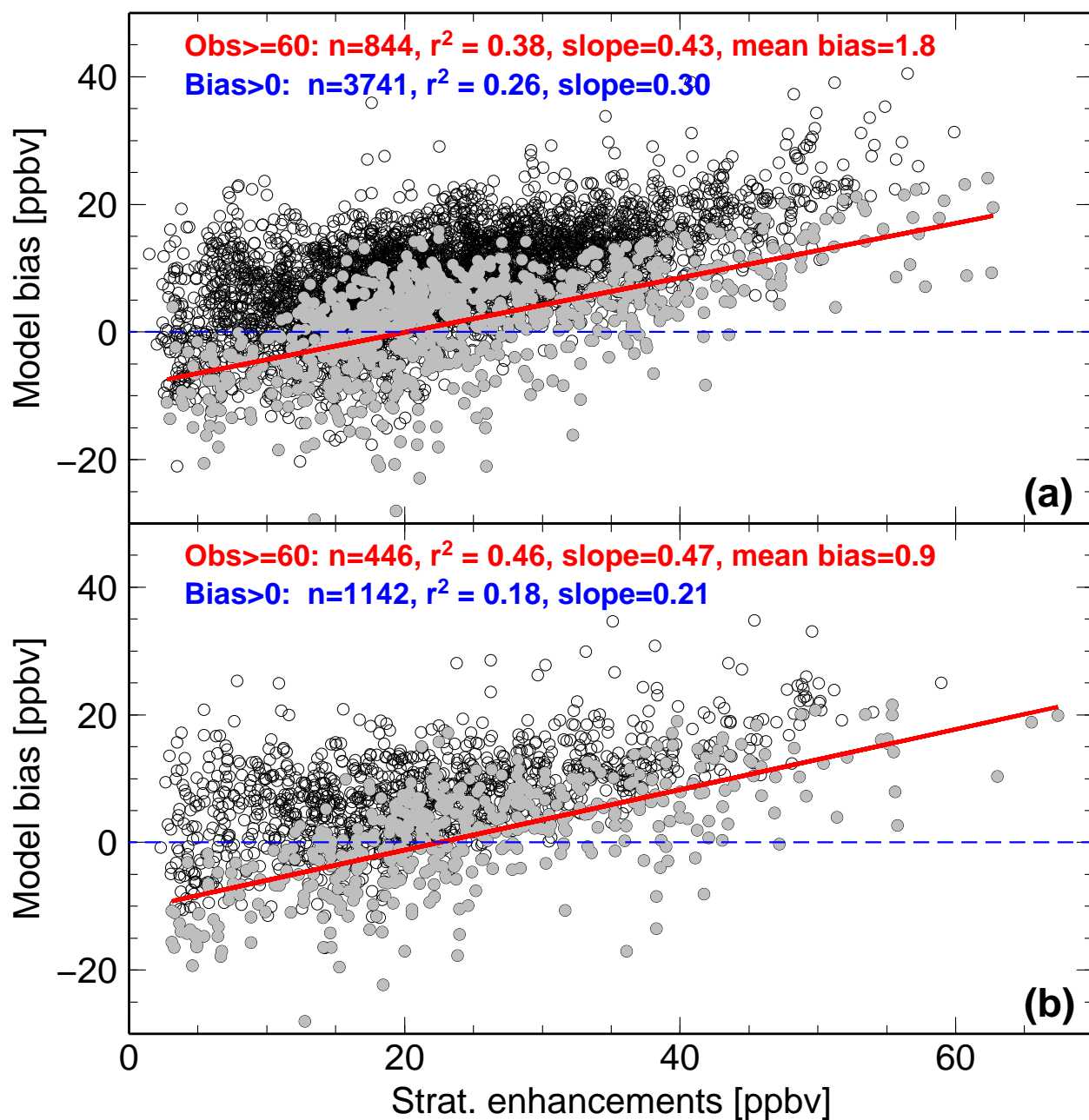


Figure 12. Scatter plots of model biases in surface MDA8 O₃ versus stratospheric enhancements for April-June 2010 (a) for AQS sites in EPA Region 8 (red box in Fig.1) and (b) for 15 high-elevation sites (green symbols in Fig.1). Statistics from the linear regression are given for points with observed MDA8 O₃ ≥ 60 ppb (gray) and points with high model bias (above the blue line).

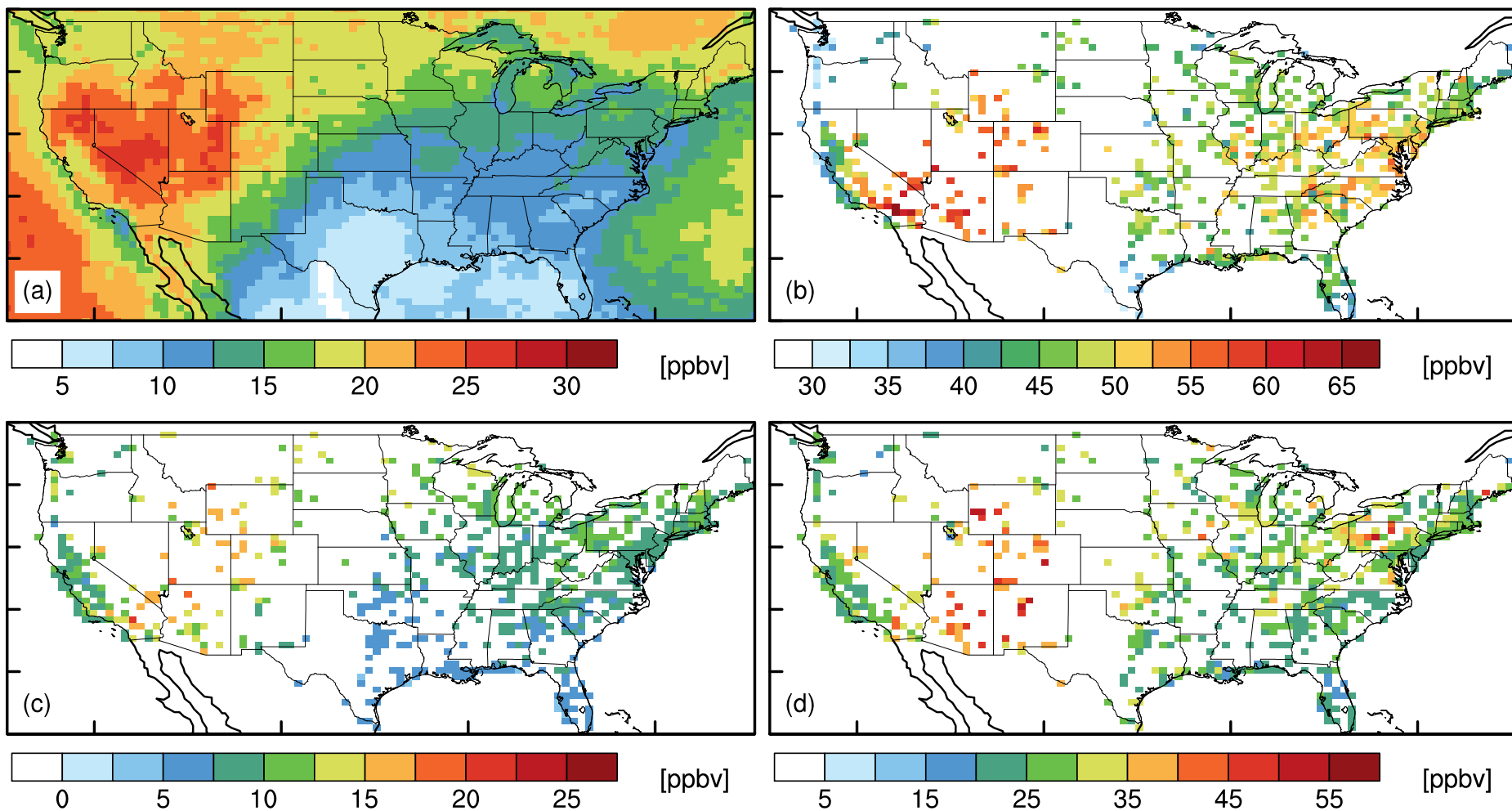


Figure 13. Continental U.S. distributions of (a) median stratospheric contribution to MDA8 surface ozone from April-June 2010 as estimated by the GFDL AM3 model, (b) median MDA8 surface ozone from AQS observations averaged over a $0.625 \times 0.5^\circ$ grid, (c-d) bias-corrected estimates of the median and maximum stratospheric contribution (Section 4.2). Note the different color scale used to highlight regional variability.

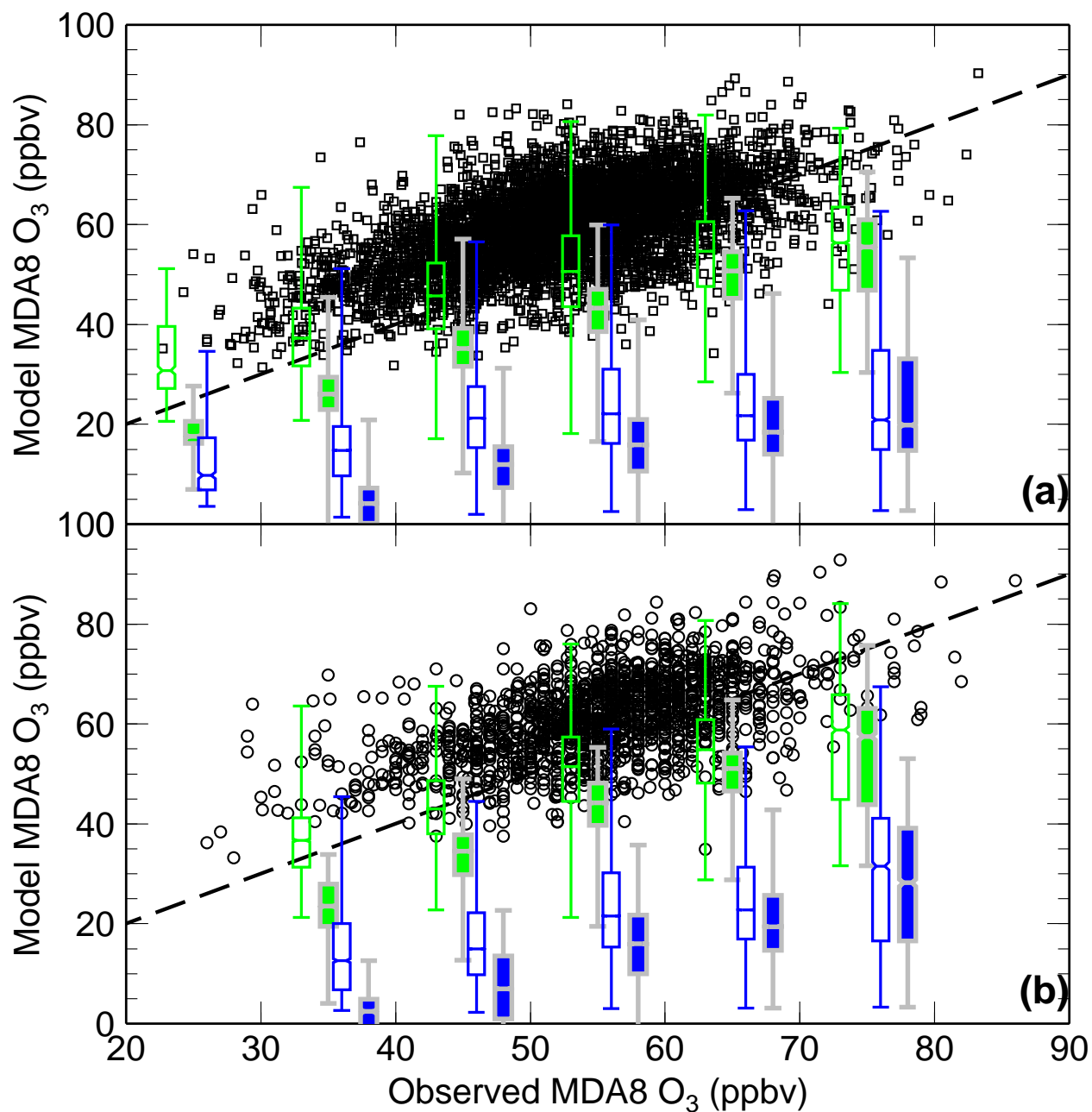


Figure 14. Model versus observed MDA8 surface O₃ for April-June 2010 at (a) AQS sites in EPA Region 8 and (b) 15 high-elevation sites (Figure 1). Also shown is the 1:1 line. The box-and-whisker plots (minimum, 25th, 50th, 75th percentiles, and maximum) give statistics of the NA background (green) and the stratospheric contribution (blue) for every 10-ppb bin of observed values. Points greater than 80 ppbv are merged to the 70-80 ppbv range. The filled boxes represent the bias-corrected estimates by assuming that model overestimates of total O₃ are entirely driven by excessive stratospheric influence (Section 4.2).